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ABSTRACT

The challenge of specialization within school social work practice, as well as a broader, more comprehensive view of school social work, is discussed in a series of journal articles. In addition, the use of therapeutic principles within the school setting is documented. (KA)

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ILLINOIS ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL SOCIAL WORKERS

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EDITORIAL

School social workers are often caught in the predicament of providing comprehensive services to the educational institution while the educational institution, regarding these services as a "fringe," contemplates a reduction of services due to financial considerations. While jarring, nevertheless it is apparent that providing this much needed service for the educational institution is not enough. In addition, in an age of evaluation and measurement, the value of social work services in the schools can no longer be stated in a mere recital of daily events or in an emotional appeal. Consequently, to survive and grow, school social work programs and objectives must be clear and results confirming objectives must be apparent.

This objective confirmation is difficult because the work of the school social work practitioner includes direct case work and group work with children and families, consultation and referral, linkage with other helping agencies and work with the system to improve the educational environment. While complex, this practice is often characterized by "talk" and "listening." Objective measurement of either is difficult, if not impossible. Moreover, the problem solving process used by the social worker remains difficult to quantify and its results are often belated. However, it is this illusive nature of the work that the school social worker must make tangible. The school social worker must communicate what he is capable of doing, who he can serve and how it is done. The paradox for the social worker is that the very practice methods which make the profession worth while are the same methods that make his work appear insubstantial.

Adding to this paradox is the simple matter of available time. A school district expects that social workers in schools will provide direct service to a child and his family. The numbers of referrals grow as new legislation identifies both additional children to be served and additional requirements for that service. Hence, special education continues to become more complex. Adding to this complexity, the school social worker belongs to a diagnostic screening team, participates in multi-disciplinary staffings and assists individual teachers and administrators. The social worker, assigned to a particular building one-half day per week might participate in the screening meeting, attend a staffing, complete a social history and contact several parents and teachers. But, what becomes of his time available for direct service? As the assignment exists either direct service or consultation must suffer.

The answer is obvious but perhaps unpleasant. School social workers must stop trying to work with all situations, help all children, all faculty and all families. Their tasks must be prioritized. Then

program objectives determined by the building and its population, in combination with the time and manpower available, may be clearly stated; performance goals may be formulated and evaluation measures planned. Rather than being immobilized by the enormity of an amorphous task, the social worker can be successful by proceeding methodically to chip away at his prioritized objectives. While many school social workers may balk at the seeming regimentation of this approach, the other alternative is suicidal. Either be dismissed as a financial frill or drown in an increasing river of activities.

Jeanne Evertts

THE CHALLENGE OF SPECIALIZATION: ISSUES IN SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE AND EDUCATION

Robert Constable

The proposed "Standards for Social Work Services in the Schools"[1] developed by the NASW Task Force on Social Work in Schools climaxes a period of developing interest in the components of specialization for school social work. Paralleling this development in social work practice are developments in social work education of similar import.[2] Together these developments reinforce a direction toward a two-level professional degree structure, with the MSW providing an entry to specialized practice. Consequently, it becomes necessary to review the implications of these developments and to suggest a social work educational model for a specialty in social work practice in the schools.

The NASW Task Force Report has taken a step toward a description of the specific tasks of school social work practice. This step is part of a larger thrust in practice and in social work education to define the nature of specializations or fields of practice. The predominant focus of the previous two decades has been on specialization by method (casework, group work, community organization) rather than field of practice and this focus has reflected itself in the development of practice theory.[3] Additional thrust toward a professional self-perception which cut across fields and settings was inherent in the development of NASW in 1955 from seven different groups.

On the other hand, when one defines practice in relation to a set of problems, a setting or a field of practice, it quickly becomes evident that the practitioner will rarely confine himself to a single method, that practice consists of the fulfillment of a set of tasks and goals and that appropriate professional action requires a blend of methods. There are indeed characteristic themes to this blend of methods. These characteristic themes may be identified within the construct of fields of practice. Practice becomes specified by a particular set of institutional purposes, reflecting the institution and its position in broader society. Practice in a particular setting may have much in common with other areas. But the field of practice concept also allows for recognition of the unique elements, not necessarily shared with other fields. It is necessary to identify these unique elements and

their knowledge base so that both practice and education may achieve a more meaningful social work involvement with these fields.

The NASW Task Force Reports aim to describe tasks and competencies which are specific to the field of practice, not necessarily shared with other fields. The proposed standards take a position on a number of issues in social work practice. They move away from an exclusive focus on any one method or target group; instead they opt for a problem-oriented approach with multiple methods and multiple entry points--pupils and parents, school personnel and school-community relations. This direction taken by the standards is supported by much of the school social work literature over the past 10 years.[4] It is also bolstered by recent empirical findings. Research suggests that by 1975 a shift had taken place in the consciousness of school social workers from the predominantly "clinical-casework approach" to that of a 'home school community liaison and educational counselling with the child and his parents."[5]

The major shift, epitomized by the standards, is toward conceptualizing practice in relation to the field where it occurs--in this case elementary and secondary education. Within that field social work practice is responsive to the needs represented by the population of children who attend schools as well as the institutions mandated to serve them. The standards go beyond what is currently taught in most schools of social work. Social work education, certainly in its classroom component, does not generally meet the levels of specific knowledge and skill demanded by the standards. This has the potential of leaving training for the specialty to the school social work field itself. However if the level of skill demanded by the standards is actually to be met by a cadre of practitioners, schools of social work will need to teach specialty content in school social work. Development of such a cadre of social workers prepared to enter a field of practice and to deal in changes within the field is necessary if social work is to retain an important role in the institution of public education.

Developments in social work practice and education are likely to reinforce the thrust toward the development of specialties over the next decade. A two-tier degree structure is emerging. Generalist social work preparation for entry-level practice (the base) becomes a mission of the BSW level. Masters education becomes advanced education but builds upon the base, whether provided through the masters program or achieved in a previous BSW degree. Since 1969 masters education has in fact moved quite strongly (albeit unevenly) from the older single method and generic approaches toward specialization by method, problem area or field of practice or toward a micro-macro approach.[6] The design of educational approaches to specialization is now a very high priority issue on social work education's agenda and one which will command considerable interest for years to come.

Defining educational content of both base and advanced (specialized) levels is necessary for the structural logic of the

profession. It is also an outgrowth of considerable growth in knowledge and in methods. The result has been a span of practice which is too complex to be contained within a purely "generic" education (and practice) approach and likewise too complex to be effectively met by one degree level. Moreover, as base content in social work education becomes identified, a consequent specification of "advanced" practice preparation becomes necessary. The emerging clarity about a common base and its establishment in social work education at both bachelors and masters levels may now allow a greater degree of specificity and specialization without fear of professional fragmentation.

The balance between generic practice base and specialization has been sought by the profession for many years. Encompassing such enormous diversity within a common, generic base was extremely desirable during a period when common professional commitments and identity were being forged, but it also created an inevitable gap between education and practice. It placed considerable responsibility for training beyond the professional degree in the hands of individual fields of practice. A two level degree structure should allow graduate programs to make a greater entry into specialty preparation with assurances that any specialty is built on a generic base.

The existence of two entry levels also has profound implications for the structure of practice, although not every field of practice will make use of both levels. The BSW graduate is a generalist, not a specialist. This person has had a successful practice experience in a specific field and is prepared to translate this achievement into other fields. As with any generically trained practitioner, the BSW is capable of a variety of direct services, to individuals, groups and communities. While the training may be compatible with certain aspects of the field, the currently isolated practice of most school social workers makes it a less likely field for the bachelor's graduate. However, in school settings and special education units with masters supervision, with a team approach, the bachelor's graduate can make a definite contribution.

The school social work role envisaged in the standards involves a role in planning and influencing of institutional change to meet changing environmental conditions as well as services to individuals. The practice of planned change demands a high level of knowledge of the field of practice as well as an encompassing understanding of the effect of planned change upon individual clientele. Such a role, which involves expertise in a field of practice, is not merely a desirable addition to the social work armamentorium. If this level of expertise is not maintained and fostered in at least a cadre of practitioners in each area, there may be an erosion of social work practice in the particular field, loss of professional autonomy, encroachment and gradual replacement by other practitioners specifically trained within the field of practice to meet more limited goals. With the slender foothold social work has had in the field of elementary and secondary education across the country there is no doubt of the applicability of this analysis. An understanding of policy development within the

school and an understanding of curriculum and its development is crucial to professional survival, but is not currently available at either degree level.

In order to define such educational content it is necessary to define the components of practice within the specialty area. These components may be defined by beginning with the characteristics and special problem focus of the field of practice. Defining the field and the potential contribution of social work allows for the identification of generic and specific components of social work practice. As social work tasks are defined within a field of practice, the level of preparation, whether "base" or "specialized" can be matched with the complexity of these tasks and the way services are delivered in the particular field. By beginning with the problem and the field, shaping the problem to fit a particular method or a particular educational level can be avoided.[7]

Characteristics of a Field of Practice

Defining the component characteristics of the field of practice makes it possible to define desirable social work education input. Harriett Bartlett provides a useful construct.[8] According to Bartlett a field of practice is characterized by:

1. A problem (condition, pheonomenon) of central concern.
2. A system of organized services (including programs, agencies and professions.)
3. A body of knowledge, values and methods (which grows up in each field.)
4. Socio-cultural attitudes. Around each human need and the social institution which serves it, there is a cluster of socio-cultural values, norms and attitudes in society as a whole toward the social institution, not the attitudes within the institution mentioned in the paragraph above.
5. Characteristic responses and behavior of the persons served (clients, patients). Recurrent attitudes and the responses that can be identified in relation to various areas of human need and associated institutions.

School social work is inherently interprofessional. The contribution of social work is related to the broader functions and evolving needs of the educational institution. More traditional practice models of casework, group-work and community organization are insufficient in themselves to meet the variety of professional roles involved in school social work practice. This insufficiency of traditional practice models is recognized in the school social work literature in the form of efforts to broaden the base to a more inclusive model[9] and in critiques of the traditional direct service model as too narrow and unrelated to planned institutional change.[10] A solution which focuses on the individual to the exclusion of institutional change is clearly unsatisfactory. On the other hand, a focus on institutional change without some anchorage in professional purpose and in knowledge base, in a clientele and its needs is ultimately inoperable in the school

setting. A setting which values specific competency and division of labor as deeply as the school is unlikely to welcome the efforts of an undifferentiated change agent. A change agent must represent a level of understanding of what needs change and what is the potential effect of such change, together with some competence in the way change may be accomplished. The somewhat artificial division between individual and institutional change experts is an example of the weakness of a purely method-specific concept of practice in meeting the demands of social work practice within a particular field. The field of practice approach appears more closely linked to actual practice.

Bartlett's construct for fields of practice may be applied to social work in elementary and secondary education:

Characteristics of the Education Field

1. The Problem (Condition, Phenomenon) of Central Concern.

A "problem" exists when the school cannot meet its function of educating and socializing the child adequately or when something is interfering with the child's development of maximum potential or equal access to educational opportunity.

The education field carries a major socializing function within modern society and is delegated a number of functions which formerly would be the exclusive province of the family. Access to an adequate education is now considered the right of the child and the family and has recently been broadened to include a variety of children with special needs. This right is deeply linked to the child's right to full development of his potential and equal access to such opportunity. The obligation of school attendance is also placed on the child (and indirectly on the school). It is reinforced through mandatory attendance laws--measures which, when passed in the early twentieth century, drastically changed the nature of the American public school system.

2. The System of Organized Services.

The overall system comprises the public school system, K through 12, including remedial and special classes and pre-school classes, when sponsored by the public school system. Each school is a highly structured, normative system with a complex and intricate set of rules, ways of establishing "membership" or status, types of leadership, and ways of dealing with "outsiders." Private school systems are somewhat different in their mandate and the potential purpose of the service.

3. The Body of Knowledge, Values and Methods.

There is a body of knowledge about how children learn and the conditions which promote or prevent learning. There is a body of methods to facilitate learning, to facilitate the adjustment of learners to the education setting and the setting to the learner's needs. This body of knowledge and methods presupposes and builds upon certain value commitments of the school and of the professions which serve the school. These value commitments and methods are expressed

through expectations that professionals, who practice in a school, must meet a standard of quality. These standards are fairly explicit and represent obligations of the school and its personnel, regardless of their own personal points of view. These norms also govern day-to-day interaction of differing professional specialties serving the institution of education. The desire for this standard of quality service provides a major reason for the inclusion of non-education professionals in the school.

4. Socio-cultural Attitudes.

Society, particularly modern industrial society, places great value on educational institutions not only as means of socializing *in loco parentis* but also as providing a track to upward mobility, which it is believed, is available to everyone. Consequently school failure or any type of non-conformity in relation to school expectations is severely dealt with and may be cause of considerable social shame (other types of deviance are often considerably less charged with shame.) Parents are expected to "cooperate" with the school expectations. The child's failure in school is also felt to be somehow the parent's failure, whatever its reality base. In this respect the school also is a subtle socializer of parents.

5. Characteristic Responses and Behavior of the Persons Served.

The fear of failure of any sort and the potential of social shame in the face of continuing demands to adjust both socially and emotionally to a classroom situation affects children differently. Continuing stress and expectations of performance will generally ensure that a problem, limitation or need, experienced elsewhere, will be also expressed in school performance. If this difficulty in performing within school expectations is defined as a "problem," placing responsibility on the child alone, the child suffers further stress from the labelling process.

On the other hand, the school may represent a positive and ordered "ideal" environment to certain children and may be a crucially positive counterbalance to other less positive factors in his or her life situation.

Possible Content of the Base

"Base" refers to the constellation of knowledge, values, attitudes and skills required for beginning professional practice and advanced education." Base educational content would comprise five areas. These are: 1) human behavior and the social environment, 2) social welfare programs, services and policies, 3) social work practice, 4) the scientific method and 5) social work practicum.[13]

What may be labeled "base" level social work education has had considerable development at the masters level and later at the BSW level over the last twenty-five years. Some practitioners with only this level of preparation could move into school social work in situations where the staffing framework would allow for appropriate supervision and differentiation of tasks. In order to practice within the schools, the practitioner needs to have a broadened method base -- an

orientation to more than one method and understanding of the relation of method to task in the school setting. The practitioner needs as detailed an understanding of change processes in organizations and communities as of change processes in individuals and families. In the past the generically-trained practitioner, who moved into a school setting, was able to apply substantively knowledge, values and skills learned in other areas. The specifics of the field of practice were learned on the job. This situation probably will continue, but with an additional input of more specifically trained practitioners as social work education changes.

Educational Content of the Specialization

The advanced level of social work practice builds upon the base but moves toward a broadening and deepening of knowledge and a practice which will have a greater impact on the institution itself. To have this impact there is a need for content specific to the particular field of practice. Several areas would be particularly important to schools. These would comprise:

1) Knowledge of the educational institution, its legal and sociological base as an expression of community values, knowledge of its organization, including financing. Knowledge of proposed variants to this institution. Familiarity with and understanding of the language and concepts used by educators.
2) Knowledge of programs for school children with special needs, the philosophy and methodology of these programs, the implications of different types of special education programs on pupil adjustment.
3) Familiarity with principles of curriculum development and teaching methods. Understanding of the differential effect of teaching styles on children. Ability to contribute helpfully as a social worker in a consultative relationship with teachers and school administrators.
4) Deepened understanding of the nature of developmental crises and children's response to stress, understanding of familial, institutional and community dynamics in relation to the behavior of children.

Development of Practice Skills in a Particular Field

The knowledge base, unique to the specialty practitioner, is linked with a development of practice skill in particular areas of the field of practice. The specialty practitioner will deepen skills in particular social work method areas with the characteristic focus of social work in public education. The following two areas need particular emphasis in such specialty training:

1) Ability to operate as a practitioner in the complex organization of the school, with parents, with teachers, and with school children in carrying out an intervention plan. Tested experience working in a context of professional difference. Familiarity with role

differences of other education specialists and ability to collaborate and communicate in a purposeful way.

2) Ability to participate as a social worker in planning efforts geared toward curriculum and program development. Ability to initiate planning efforts, when necessary, and provide professionally appropriate supervision and consultation. Ability to communicate regarding school needs in one's professional area to the community.

Content from such a specialty would not necessarily be learned exclusively in a school of social work. Some of the content, dealing with school as an institution could best be gotten in a school of education. Certain practice skills could only be taught in the field. Indeed if depth is to be gotten, it may be useful to initiate postgraduate training experiences. Development of specialty competence could require a different blend in the relation of practice to education and social work education to other professional schools. Joint arrangements with schools of education would probably be necessary. Students would need help to integrate components of the curriculum which are much broader, but also more defined than the customary content of second year.

The relation of practice to social work education of generic to specific social work, are intertwined issues and probably the most significant issues we will be facing in social work education over the next decade. The issues are complex, but with far-reaching effects, in the way social workers define themselves and in the depth of our penetration into various social institutional areas. These issues are admittedly controversial and to some extent unresolved. They will require the highest level of creativity on the part of practitioners and educators working together to accomplish a mutually worthwhile task.

FOOTNOTES

1. Task Force on Social Work in the Schools, SOCIAL WORK IN THE SCHOOLS: STANDARDS FOR PRACTICE mimeo (Washington, D.C.: NASW, 1977).

2. Task Force on Structure and Quality in Social Work Education, STRUCTURE AND QUALITY IN SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1974).

The Council on Social Work Education House of Delegates' actions contain a number of important revisions of the report. See SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION REPORTER, May, 1976.

3. Robert Constable, "New Directions in Social Work Education: The Task Force Reports," to appear in the JOURNAL OF EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK, Winter, 1978.

4. For a review of this literature and a discussion of recent school social work practice models, see Lela Costin, "School Social Work" from John Turner, ed. ENCYCLOPEDIA OF SOCIAL WORK, 17 (Washington, D.C., NASW, 1977) p. 1237-42.

5. Paula Allen Meares, "Analysis of Tasks in School Social Work," SOCIAL WORK, 22, 3, May 1977, p. 196-201.

6. Robert Constable and Samuel Weingarten. A STUDY OF WORKLOAD POLICIES AND FACULTY RESOURCES IN GRADUATE SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1977).

7. See Kaplan's "law of the instrument"--give a small boy a hammer and he will discover everything needs hammering.
Abraham Kaplan, THE CONDUCT OF INQUIRY: METHODOLOGY FOR THE BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Company, 1974) p. 28.

8. Adapted from Harriett Bartlett, ANALYZING SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE BY FIELDS (New York: NASW, 1941) p. 40.

9. See John Alderson, "Models of School Social Work Practice," from Rosemary Sarri and Frank Maple, eds. THE SCHOOL IN THE COMMUNITY (Washington, D.C.: 1972, NASW) p. 57.

Benjamin Gottlieb and Lois J. Gottlieb, "An Expanded Role for the School Social Worker" SOCIAL WORK, 16, October, 1971, p. 12-21.

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William Neal Brown, "The Social Worker in the School as an Agent of Change" from William E. Ferinden Jr. and Donald Van Handel, HANDBOOK OF SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK (Linden, N.J.: Remediation Associates, 1974).

10. John L. Delgenio, "Are There Alternatives to Casework?" JOURNAL OF SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK, 1. 1, Spring 1974, p. 56-62.

Lela B. Costin, "School Social Work Practice: A New Model" SOCIAL WORK, 20.2, March 1975, p. 135-9.

Helen Nieberl, "Breaking Out of the Bind in School Social Work Practice," op.cit., Sarri and Maple, p. 151-160.

11. 1975 Report of the Task Force on Structure and Quality in Social Work Education, p. 219., Op Cit

12. Frank M. Loewenburg, "Identifying the Basic, Core Content in Social Work Education" mimeo, Council on Social Work Education, Sept. 1975, p. 18-22.

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AN APPLICATION OF SOCIAL LEARNING PRINCIPLES TO A CASE OF SCHOOL PHOBIA

Catherine Ann Martin
and Alvin O. Korte

Although considerable attention has been focused on the problem of school phobia from the perspective of psychodynamic theory, few studies have considered the topic from the perspective of a social learning approach. This article describes one situation that was successfully remediated using social learning principles.

At the time of the intervention the authors were aware of G. R. Patterson's "A Learning Theory Approach to the Treatment of the School Phobic Child."[1] This article provided a helpful reference from which to analyze and treat the problem of the child to be described. Patterson's article cited Estes, Haylett and Johnson, who indicated that the stimulus that elicits the anxiety reaction, called school phobia, is not the school as such, "but rather any situation that represents separation from the parents." The separation creates an eliciting stimulus that generates a great deal of anxiety leading to escape from school or its avoidance.[2]

Using concepts from Mary Cover Jones' classic work, and Guthrie's interference concept, Patterson paired doll play, M & M's and social approval to condition a seven year old to longer periods away from his mother, with a concomitant reduction in anxiety and the eventual return to school. Mary Cover Jones paired the interfering response, eating, with the feared object, the white rabbit, resulting in the extinction of the escape behaviors and a loss of fear of the white rabbit.[3] Guthrie, as cited in Patterson's article, posits that if new responses can be associated with the eliciting stimulus, in this case separation from the parent, the new association will result in gradual extinction of the escape and avoidance behaviors and a lessening of the anxiety reaction.[4]

This concept has been used in related cases to decondition fears and phobic reactions. A. A. Lazarus reports an interesting case in which an eight year old boy developed a fear of moving vehicles two years after the parents had been involved in an auto accident. Treatment consisted of exposing the child to mild vehicle-related stimuli and short excursions. Consequently, the child gradually developed the enjoyment of motoring for its own sake.[5]

The approach in this report was to decondition the child's fears of separation from the mother by a careful analysis of the events that preceeded the development of the phobia, the environmental stimuli or factors that continued to maintain the escape of flight from school, the avoiding behaviors or the unwillingness to go to school and the restructuring of the child's environment for therapeutic purposes.

At the time of the difficulties with the school and home, Bernice was a seven year old female, beginning the second grade in a predominantly Spanish-speaking school in northern New Mexico. There was one other younger sibling in this family of six.

Bernice did not attend Head Start, but attended the first grade in September, 1969. Some difficulty in making Bernice go to school was experienced by her mother the first two weeks of September, but soon Bernice was attending fairly regularly. During the first year, Bernice missed a total of 33 days in a school year of 180 days. These absences were caused by Bernice's complaints of stomach aches. However, a medical examination showed no reason for her complaints. The teacher observed that once inside the classroom, she would begin her work and got along well with her classmates. Bernice was retained in the first year because the teacher felt that she had had too many absences and that she was immature.

The following year, Bernice was placed with another teacher. Bernice did not like this teacher and refused to go to school unless returned to her previous teacher. The change was made in October and school attendance was satisfactory for a while. Meanwhile, the mother separated from her husband in December of 1970. Following, Bernice began to run away from school shortly after recess. She would run home and not be returned to school. Her mother allowed her to play with neighborhood preschoolers. Eventually, every morning, Bernice began to protest terribly against going to school. The mother's response was one of ambivalence and a lack of firmness.

When at school, Bernice was threatened by the principal who occasionally spanked her. The school district's truant officer, an unsympathetic, bullish, ex-police officer, in turn threatened her with the state police and jail. Moreover, her siblings picked up the tempo by harrassing her constantly and telling her she would remain dumb.

One conversation between the social worker and the child revealed that Bernice liked her teacher but could give no adequate reasons for not liking school. The worker developed some rapport with the child and asked if she could come for the child and take her to school the following morning. The child agreed to this. However, on the following day she cried hysterically as her mother fought to dress her. Her body was racked with sobs so badly that she could hardly catch her breath. After Bernice was calmed she was told she would not be forced to go to school. However, Bernice missed school continuously from February to the termination of school in early June, 1971.

By mid-April, 1971, Bernice was tested and evaluated by a clinical psychologist. The tests administered included the Columbia Mental Maturity Scale, Bender Visual Motor Gestalt Test and the Three Wishes Test. Bernice was found to be of average intelligence,

attaining an IQ of 100. The psychologist, reasoning from the parents' divorce, concluded that Bernice was deathly afraid that her mother, like her father, would go to work one day and never return. According to the psychologist, the child was not aware how desperately she depended on her mother for survival, and could not face losing her mother. The psychologist questioned whether the other children were unconsciously blaming Bernice for the father's disappearance. In light of those findings, it was better for Bernice to remain at home, being sure the mother would not disappear. However, the psychologist did suggest that the child be returned to school with the opportunity of calling home to receive assurances that the mother was still home.

In September, 1971, Bernice began the second grade with a new teacher. The problem of running away from the school and refusing to return continued to accelerate. Bernice was referred by the new principal who had been notified by the teacher that the child had attended only three days of the new school year.

Separate interviews were held with Bernice's mother, the school principal, the second grade teacher, and the social services worker from the public agency. The school principal's cooperation was enlisted in a program to desensitize the child to the mother's separation and the child's readjustment to school. The principal, both sensitive and sensible had received some training in the application of theories of social learning and their application in the classroom. His attitude was one of considerable support. The principal agreed to meet with the mother and the social worker at the school to impress upon the mother the importance of her full cooperation in the project. Also, a meeting was arranged with the teacher to involve her in the plan. The teacher's role would be to create a warm, receptive atmosphere for the child when she returned to school. Knowing that in the previous year, the child would often refuse to participate and sit behind her chair on the floor, the teacher and her aide were instructed to ignore these behaviors. According to Bernice's previous teacher, if her actions were ignored, Bernice would resume normal behavior.

Information concerning the child's average IQ and selected data from the psychological report was shared with the teacher. The teacher did have some previous school work completed by Bernice. It was judged to be adequate. Material was selected for Bernice so that she could receive special help from the aide. The material served as a starting and building point so that Bernice could be quickly engaged in the learning process. A system of graduated reinforcements for the child's work was also initiated. Supportive comments were to be made by the teacher and the aide as Bernice completed a unit of work. Finally, the teacher was instructed not to make too much of the child's return to school, particularly in front of the other children. Both the teacher and the aide were extremely cooperative, sensitive and supportive. Consequently, the transition to regular classwork was accomplished without difficulty.

A meeting was held with the mother and the principal and Bernice's

problem was reviewed. The nature of the problem and its seriousness was reassessed. The mother concurred with the analysis. She felt that she could not continue to fight to dress her daughter every morning. Her exasperation with the problem was sufficient motivation to follow the plan outlined for her.

The mother's task was to curb the other children at home from teasing Bernice. The second major task was to let Bernice know that she would be going with her to school every day. The plan was to be implemented on a Thursday. In order to provide a powerful incentive to the child to want to come to school, the mother was to tell Bernice "If you go to school on Thursday, all day, we can both go to the circus on Friday." The mother and Bernice were at school all day Thursday. On Friday, the class took a trip to a distant city to attend the circus.

On the following Monday, the plan was for the mother to attend class with Bernice. The mother was instructed to step out of the classroom for a few minutes every hour. She should eventually leave the classroom for 15 minutes at a time, gradually increasing the amount of time out of the classroom, but always returning.

On Tuesday, mother and Bernice did not come to school due to a legitimate illness of a younger sibling. On Wednesday, both returned to school. The mother separated several times during the day, appearing at the morning and afternoon recess, at noon, and at the close of the day. On Thursday, the mother brought Bernice to school. At noon, Bernice declared, "You don't have to come with me to school anymore." She was left in school by herself through the afternoon. On Friday, Bernice came to school by herself. There were no absences the following week nor for the rest of the year. The child made a satisfactory adjustment that year and no new problems developed during the rest of the year.

Interestingly, a pattern of absences that had created a great deal of concern the previous year disappeared within the span of a week. There are, of course, other studies reporting quick remediating of this problem. Patterson reports that in the case of Karl, ten hours of staff time and twenty bags of M & M's deconditioned his phobia. Patterson writes that a second child's phobia was similarly deconditioned in less than six hours of staff time.[6] Kennedy reports on the rapid treatment of fifty cases of school phobia. Kennedy's article is important in that two distinct types of phobias are described, Type I and Type II. Apparently the Type I phobias respond with a complete and quick remission of the phobic symptoms followed by no evidence of symptom substitution or recurrence of the phobia.[7]

Kennedy has developed some prescriptive recommendations for the rapid treatment procedure. Interestingly, we are in agreement with Kennedy's recommendations which, in general, parallel the interventive strategy in the case situation we have described. Kennedy lists several criteria:

AVOIDANCE OF EMPHASIS ON SOMATIC COMPLAINTS. Emphasis on somatic complaints should be avoided. Kennedy suggests that the complaints should be handled matter-of-factly. The doctor should make a prompt physical examination to insure that

stomach complaints, nausea, vomiting, have no physical basis.
FORCED SCHOOL ATTENDANCE. With Type I phobias the parent should be convinced of the necessity to be firm in returning the child to school. Allow the mother to stand in the hall, if she must, or to visit the school during the morning but not to stay. In the case we have reported, the mother needed considerable support to be firm. Here the principal and the social service workers played very important roles.
INTERVIEW WITH PARENTS. Lead the interview. According to Kennedy, the confidence of the parents is greatly increased by the interviewer verifying the history rather than history making. Anticipating some of the problems experienced by the parents helps them to gain confidence.
BE OPTIMISTIC. Stress the transient nature of the problem. Indicating that the problem will improve with time tends to lighten the depression of the parents and promotes involvement in the solution.
EMPHASIZE SUCCESS. Kennedy suggests that ninety percent of the Type I phobias stay at school most of the first day. This is helpful for all to be aware of at the outset of the problem.
PRESENT THE FORMULA. Outline a plan for the parents to follow. Kennedy suggests that some rehearsal and reiteration of the plan needs to be conducted with the parents. The plan may involve some definite tasks to do during the last two days of the school weekend, nondiscussion of the phobic symptoms during the weekend, and some prescriptions for dealing with the child on the following Monday.

For the practitioner requiring some definitive strategies for ameliorating the problems of school phobia, the behaviorist approach offers some methods that have been found to be highly operative. In recent years, Lazarus, et. al.,[8] and Smith and Sharpe[9] have provided other approaches to the treatment of school phobias. It is hoped that this literature will continue to grow and that a better understanding of the school phobic child will evolve.

FOOTNOTES

1. Gerald R. Patterson, "A Learning Theory Approach to the Treatment of a School Phobic Child," CASE STUDIES IN BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION, eds. L. Krasner and L. Ullman (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1966). pp. 279-285.

2. Ibid. p. 279.

3. Mary Cover Jones, "A Laboratory Study of Fear-The Case of Peter," SOCIAL LEARNING IN CHILDHOOD READINGS IN THEORY AND APPLICATION. Donna M. Gelfand, ed. (Belmont, Calif: Brooks Cole Publishing Co.) pp. 151-157.

4. Patterson, OP.CIT. p. 279.

5. Arnold A. Lazarus, "The Elimination of Children's Phobias by Deconditioning," BEHAVIOR THERAPY AND THE NEUROSES. H.J. Eysenck, ed. (New York: Pergamon Press, 1960). p. 116.

6. Patterson, OP.CIT.

7. Wallace A. Kennedy, "School Phobia: Rapid Treatment of Fifty Cases." JOURNAL OF ABNORMAL PSYCHOLOGY, LXX, (August, 1965) pp. 285-289.

8. Arnold A. Lazarus, David A. Polefka, and Gerald C. Davidson, "Classical and Operant Factors in the Treatment of a School Phobia," JOURNAL OF ABNORMAL PSYCHOLOGY LXX (June, 1965) pp. 225-229.

9. Ronald E. Smith and Theodore M. Sharpe, "Treatment of a School Phobia and Implosive Therapy," JOURNAL OF CONSULTING AND CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY XXV (August, 1970) pp. 239-243.

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THE EFFECT OF A GROUP THERAPY EXPERIENCE ON FIFTH GRADE ACTING OUT BOYS

Mark Swerdlik, William Rice
and Eunice Larson

The management of students' behavior in elementary schools has been an important function of both teachers and principals from the beginning of public education. The inappropriate expression of feelings through aggressive behavior has been the cause of great concern and is one of the primary struggles that teachers experience because this behavior tends to interfere with academic achievement and the establishment of a positive mental health classroom atmosphere. In an effort to better understand this behavior, the relationship of self-esteem to manifest behavior has been explored. Many theorists, James, Mead, Coopersmith, Horney and Brookover et al have found a relationship to exist between the inappropriate expression of feelings through aggressive behavior and poor academic achievement. One of the corolaries of Coopersmith's classic study of elementary school age children was the identification of some determiners of self-esteem in children. These included a feeling of success in three significant areas: power (belief of influence or control of others), significance (the acceptance, attention, and affection of others) and competence (successful performance in meeting the demands for achievement). These determinants provide manageable variables that could be implemented in a group setting. If a group of boys with behavior problems were given successful experiences in the areas of power, significance and competence, inferences about their self-esteem gained from observed behavior change could be possible.

Group therapy intervention was initiated with six fifth grade boys in a rural Michigan elementary school. Each of the boys were experiencing degrees of difficulty in academic achievement, behavior control and peer relations. Behavior described by their teachers included: biting and name-calling, failure to complete assignments, short attention span, distractibility and erratic academic achievement. In addition to difficulties in school, each of the boys were difficult to manage at home. Four of the boys were living with their mothers and stepfathers, while two of the boys were from intact families but experiencing difficulties with siblings and parents. Two

of the boys were from families in which there was a great deal of marital discord and suspected severe discipline of the children.

The parents and teachers of each of the participants were interviewed to obtain their permission for their child or pupil to participate in the group. In addition, prior to the first meeting, each of the six potential participants were individually interviewed at which time the group's rationale and possible activities were discussed. Each of the boys was given a choice of membership and each chose to join. The group began five weeks later.

During the first meeting, the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale was administered to each boy. This paper and pencil self-esteem inventory was re-administered at the end of the last session. Teachers and staff were also interviewed by the social worker and school psychologist prior to, during and at the conclusion of the sixteen week one hour group therapy sessions. These staff interviews were held in order to gather their perceptions of the boy's academic achievement and school behavior, both in and out of the classroom.

The two leaders of the group (female social worker and male school psychologist) utilized an eclectic approach in terms of group techniques but emphasized providing successful experiences in the areas of power, significance, and competence. These included the use of audio-visual aids, such as mental health discussion films, gym activities, role playing, simulated games and art activities. Discussion was held centered around the formulation of rules and the administration of consequences. The group members generated their own rules: "No nasty remarks," "No hitting or kicking" and for violation, a ten minute exclusion from the gym activity. The boys enforced their own rules. They were also given a voice in determining the length of discussion, gym activities and team make-up. Not only did they make these decisions (power), but also when they succeeded in acting in accordance with them, they felt competent. They were fulfilling both the group's and the significant adults' (leaders) expectations. In addition, the inclusion of adults added to their feeling of power by simply being members of the group. This was the only such group in the school and their peers were well aware of its membership. Teachers reported that their classmates would ask participants if they could join also. Obviously, the group members were doing something that others were not and this added to their feeling of significance. As group leaders provided unconditional positive regard, both during the group time and when meeting the boys out of the group setting, the boys' feelings of significance were enhanced.

The major goal of the group's activities was to facilitate group cohesiveness and to increase the self-esteem of the participants. The low self-esteem evidenced in the pre-test results was reflected in the boys' initial behavior in the group. For example, there was a high frequency of name calling (i.e. 'fat-so,' 'dummy,' 'idiot') among the group members. Moreover, the boys would impulsively hit one another. During one five minute discussion, the authors counted

more than four physical aggressive behaviors in the form of punching and other aggressive behaviors. Initially, the participants were unable to sit close to one another, placing themselves at least two arms distance from each other. They would not express or react to their own or other's feelings. They would laugh or joke but be unable to respond. Initially, the participants would be unable to talk for more than five minutes before they would begin to become distracted saying, "Let's play basketball." During the first few sessions, no game would be completed without a large number of arguments and fights over rules. Decisions on rule disagreements frequently resulted in one or two members yelling "I quit!" or "This stinks!" To deal with these behaviors, which reflect low self-esteem and defensiveness, the boys were given more power to make decisions about rules, consequences, games played, and length of discussions.

As the weeks progressed, there were changes in the participants' behavior in the group setting. The boys were better able to deal with their own feelings, as well as the feelings of others. An example of this growth occurred during a session when a boy was hurt during a basketball game and ran to the washroom. The other members expressed concern and were able to discuss his hurt and angry feelings when he returned a few minutes later. They were becoming better able to express feelings verbally rather than physically and they were developing empathy for each other.

The incidents of name calling, kicking, shoving and punching decreased to almost zero as the result of the group management strategies employed. The members were feeling better about themselves and therefore viewed others as less threatening. They were receptive to more positive interaction. Initially, if one person even touched another, it was brought to the attention of the entire group and the consequences enforced. Later, when contact occurred, the boys would say "It was an accident" and "Forget it." Similarly, the boys were better able to deal with physical closeness and to sit closer together in a circle. They could play a game in which they had to tape various words on each other's forehead without reacting aggressively.

The members decreased their demand for gym time and were better able to spend more time in group discussion and their distractibility and hyperactivity during discussions decreased. The high frequency of students' interruptions as other members were speaking decreased significantly. The group members were learning to understand and like one another. Two arch enemies became friends, both in and out of the group and one said during a meeting "Now Tom doesn't call me names. I like that." The frequency of arguments during gym activities and over when to stop activities decreased. The group had decided not to keep score during games and they were relating more positively. Being together to play together was becoming more important than winning.

Other examples of the development of high self-esteem include one of the most actively rejected members and the participant with the lowest self-esteem being the child who became friendly with his arch

enemy. He wanted his other classmates "who were calling me names" to join the group. He saw the group as helpful to him and that if these classmates "get to know me they will like me." During one session, he expressed quite sincerely the good feeling he received when people called him by his first name rather than his last.

During the fifth and sixth weeks some of the previous negative target behaviors reappeared (i.e. name calling, kicking) providing evidence that poor self-esteem is a strongly held attitude not quickly discarded. The boys were attempting to test their new attitudes and their leaders. These behavior were handled in accordance with the rules established by the group, and to allow them personal expression, an individual meeting was held with each of the boys. The following week behavior improved and the group was again functioning as a more cohesive unit. The boys were better able to give and accept criticism and provided helpful suggestions to each other to solve discipline incidents with school authorities. In one moving scene, all of the boys confronted one of the members with the highest status in regard to his violation of agreed upon game rules. Each boy forcefully gave examples of violations. However, they tempered it with words and feelings that communicated, "we like you." Some of the boys offered their handshakes in friendship. This encounter drew tears from the boy, but he went on to play appropriately for the remainder of our group sessions.

Observations by school staff also provided evidence to support the conclusion that group members had increased their self-esteem. These changes noted by teachers included an increase in academic achievement and was most pronounced in the boys who were the most erratic prior to the initiation of the group sessions. The boys appeared to feel better about themselves and experienced less anxiety. This reduced interference and led them to an achievement more consistent with their ability . Another observed change involved the attention by some of the members to negative comments from peers. For example, prior to group intervention, when one boy was called a name he would respond aggressively by striking out at his peers and becoming quite frustrated. After the group sessions, on a long field trip bus ride he completely ignored peers who attempted to antagonize him by calling him names. He was feeling better about himself and therefore reacted less defensively when his self-esteem was threatened.

Several of the participants spoke more positively about siblings and home life. They felt better about their home situations and felt less sibling rivalry. One of the boy's mothers who had consistently phoned the school complaining about the school's treatment of her son, stopped calling. Some of the boys who kept a daily log in their classroom, reported more good days and described making new friends and keeping them.

Teachers reported generally more positive interactions with the boys. For example, one of the boys who frequently resented and resisted authority, resisted less and accepted discipline. He realized

that he had control over his own behavior.

The teachers observed the boys to be more tolerant of others to handle frustration more appropriately. During field day at the school one of the boys who had very much wanted to win a particular event did not. Although obviously upset that he did not win, he complimented the winner. Other teacher observations of the participants' behavior reflecting more positive self-esteem included less bragging, neater physical appearances, and less rejection of out-group peers.

The principal, who was quite supportive throughout the sessions, also observed a great deal of change. He noted fewer fights on the playground, a smaller number in his office for disciplinary reasons, more appropriate interaction when discipline was necessary and a more positive attitude towards school.

Positive changes were noted in the pre and post-test self-esteem inventory scores. In addition, there was a pattern of positive changes in the specific areas of feelings of competency in school, greater control of behavior, reduced egocentrism, and more positive attitudes towards school. Objective results as well as behavioral observations by the group leaders, principal and classroom teachers, led to the conclusion that the group experience had a positive effect in increasing the self-esteem of the participants and improvement in school behavior. It does appear that one of the critical determiners of self-esteem is in fact the feeling of success. This can be provided by a group therapy intervention strategy in a school setting.

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A BROADER, MORE COMPREHENSIVE VIEW OF SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE

Marjorie McQueen Monkman

From the beginning social work, of which school social work is an important part, has had a broader, more comprehensive view of its practice than other disciplines. Social work has been characterized by two major components of direct services to individuals and families and social reform. While these two components, direct service and social reform, were not seen as separate dimensions by social work leaders in the beginning, in time they developed quite separately. Paradoxically these approaches were seen as complementary and aimed at a single purpose. Even Mary Richmond, who is recognized as an early developer of casework, said after working twenty-five years in casework that she would devote the rest of her life trying to demonstrate to caseworkers that there was more to social work than casework. This remains true today; casework is not dead or useless - it is that there is more. Consequently, it is important for social workers to get a clear, comprehensive and broad view of the practice of social work - conceptualization of the area of central concern.

In recent years, Gordon, Bartlett, Schwartz, Hearn, Klenk and Ryan, Pincus and Minahan, Compton and Galaway, and others, have identified the area of central concern for social work as the "Betweenness" or "interface" of the person and environment.[1] Granted, this idea is not new. From the beginning, social work has been concerned with the person-in-situation complex, a concern that shows social work to have a wider and more balanced view of the person-in-the-situation complex than most other disciplines. Social work is concerned with what will happen to the individual and/or the environment as a result of the activity which occurs between them. Yet social workers have not viewed their area of central concern in a manner that enables them to see the relationship between the parts of the profession, to clearly conceptualize its parameters, or to build knowledge clearly related to the area of central concern.

A major reason for this failure to develop such knowledge may have been because the language for describing areas of central concern has not lent itself to utilization. Gordon has developed a framework

for viewing areas of central concern making it easier to build knowledge and to capture the uniqueness of the social work target for practice.[3] The focus of his framework is the point of direct contact of person and environment: the interface between the individual and whatever confronts him in living. This is compatible with Costin's model of school social work which "emphasizes the interaction between pupil characteristics and school-community conditions and practices."[4]

The interface or area of contact is activated through what has been called transaction. Transaction is exchange of action or activity. This action or activity is a blend of a person's activity and impinging environmental activity; thus, exchange occurs only in the context of activity involving both individual and environment. The transaction field is created by the individual's coping behavior on the one hand and the activity of the impinging environment on the other.[5]

Coping behavior is at the surface of the individual and is capable of being consciously directed to the environment. Coping behavior excludes the many activities that are governed by neural processes below the conscious level but includes the broad repertoire of behavior that may be directed to the impinging environment and which potentially can be brought under conscious control. The significant variations in coping behavior from individual to individual suggests patterns which may at times become the focus of the interventive action. The construct "coping behavior" makes it possible to consider those behaviors that may be common to more than one individual. It enables social workers to partialize and then generalize in a way that enchances knowledge building. This way of viewing the area of central concern does not mean that the uniqueness of the "whole person" is not valued. However, viewing the whole, unique person without any way of partializing makes it impossible to generalize and, thus to build knowledge.

The other side of the transaction field is the environment. As in the case of the coping behaviors, Gordon has described a way of partializing. He has defined the qualities of the impinging environment as those qualities at the surface of the environment system which the person is actually in contact with, rather than "below-the-surface" structures which are inferred to be responsible for the nature of what the human organism actually confronts. In practice, social work has not confined its concern to the person in any particular situation, i.e., at home, in the hospital, in school or in any other situation. As Gordon has pointed out, no other profession seems to follow man so extensively into his daily habitat. Social workers have been interested in how the qualities of any of these situations interact with the coping behaviors.

Transaction has been defined as an action field combining coping behaviors and the quality of the impinging environment. Through this transaction field there is an exchange between the components of each side. The social work practice target is matching, an effort to see "that the environment directed behavior (coping) and the environment originating action (quality of impinging environemnt) are such that appropriate exchanges take place."[6] Matching the

coping and the quality means bringing about a coordination which makes for positive results for the person and the environment. Professional intervention for bringing about a match may include efforts to change the coping behavior, the quality of the impinging environment or both. There are reasons to believe that simultaneous change in both sides is desirable; however, it may be more pragmatic to consider one or the other, depending on amenability to change, available resources, etc.

Social work is concerned with what will happen to the coping behaviors and the quality of the impinging environment as a result of the exchanges that occur between them. Thus, coping behaviors and quality of impinging environment become dependent variables. The exchange "between" or the activity at the "inteface" of coping behavior and quality of impinging environment is where the independent variable for social work is found. The independent variable is some part of the input to the transaction. To state this another way, social work is more concerned with the consequence of action than the cause of action. Although much of the theory that has been borrowed has tended to focus on cause, in practice the focus has been on consequences.

The area of central concern for social work as presented here is in keeping with the value stance of social work. The central value of social work has been expressed in terms of a dual focus - to develop the potential of the individual and, at the same time, offer equal opportunity to others. This value stance is concerned with the effects of action on both the person and the environment. In keeping with this, the framework and practice for knowledge building is concerned with the effect of action on the person and the environment.

Social workers deal basically with three categories of coping behaviors: surviving, affiliating, and growing and achieving. These categories help the social worker to set priorities. Certainly, the first consideration is whether or not the client has the capacity to obtain and use the necessities for surviving. Secondly, there must be concern for his capacity for affiliating. Both surviving and affiliating skills seem to be prerequistites for growing and achieving.

Coping behaviors for surviving are those behaviors that enable the person to obtain and use resources that make it possible to continue life or activity. Such categories of surviving behaviors are capacity to obtain food, shelter, clothing, and medical treatment and locomotive capacities.

Coping behaviors for affiliating are those behaviors that enable the person to unite in a close connection to others in his environment such as the capacity to obtain and use personal relationships and the ability to use organizations and organizational structure. Each individual is in contact with organizational units such as family, school, clubs, church, etc.

Coping behaviors for growing and achieving are those behaviors that enable the persons to perform for and to contribute to himself and others. To grow and develop, the person utilizes cognitive, physical, economic and emotional capacities.

Major categories of the environment seem to be the quality of

resources, expectations and laws and policies. As is the case for categories of coping behaviors, these are not seen as mutually exclusive categories or as exhaustive. They seem to describe a major area of concern. The categories of the environment do not have a priority of their own; rather their priority is established in terms of what they are being matched with in the coping behaviors. That fact seems self-evident since the major value is the person. An important aspect of each of these three categories is the availability of knowledge and information about them.

Resources are supplies that can be drawn on or turned to for support when needed or desired. Pincus and Minahan have characterized resources as informal, formal and societal.[7] Informal systems consist of family, friends, neighbors, co-workers, and the like. Informal resources provide support, affection, advice, and concrete services such as child care and financial support. Formal resources are membership organizations or formal associations which promote the interest of members. Examples of these are AA, Association for Retarded Citizens, etc. Social resources are structured services and service institutions such as schools, hospitals, social security programs, courts and police agencies, etc. Each of these resources is evaluated in terms of adequacy or inadequacy. Social workers are concerned about whether they are opportunities, incentives, or limitations. Social workers are also concerned about situations where resources do not exist to match the coping behaviors for each person's surviving, affiliating, and growing.

Expectations are the patterned performances and obligations which are established social structures of society such as roles and tasks. These are structures which social workers recognize, but it is not the purpose of social workers to simply help people adapt to societal roles or to perform all expected tasks. It is well recognized that positive, complementary roles usually lead to greater mutual satisfaction and growth.[8] Bartlett has defined the concept of task in a meaningful way for social workers:

> ...the task concept is a way of describing the demands made upon people by various life situations. These have to do with daily living, such as growing up in the family, learning in school, entering the work world, marrying and rearing a family, and also with the common traumatic situations of life such as bereavement, separation, illness, or financial difficulties. These tasks call for responses in the form of attitude or action from the people involved in the situation.[9]

The depth or level of the expectation, coping behavior transaction, may originate at a level well beyond the immediate situation. For example, racism and sexism have brought about task and role expectations that affect many people. The individual worker may deal with this in relationship to a specific exchange, while the profession of social work may be attempting, with others, to bring about structural changes at a large level of change. Many changes on the environmental side are complex and involve more than one level of change.

Laws and policies are those binding customs or rules of conduct created by a controlling authority. Included are rights and responsibilities, procedures, sanctions and inhibiting or restricting factors. As a category, laws and policies are seen as necessary and positive components of the environment. Yet it is also recognized that many single laws or policies have negative effects for groups of people. Some of our policies make survival more difficult and in some cases, particularly for welfare clients, make affiliation almost impossible.

To utilize the framework developed thus far, I will use two populations that are familiar to school social workers as examples, unmarried teen-age parents and retarded children.

To be of help to unmarried teen-age parents it is important to consider the match between behaviors for surviving, affiliating and growing and each of the categories on the environment side. To give a few specific examples: placing the teen-age person on home-bound instruction may enhance cognitive achievement but may be destructive to affiliation in interpersonal relationships and to affiliation with society and/or organizations. The student may not be aware of laws and policies that can effect her decision to have and keep her baby. Knowledge of the task of being a mother is important both for the mother and for the child.

Many of the programs presently developed for retarded children are geared to maximizing cognitive development - or more specifically, academic achievement. Most of these programs do not develop affiliating or surviving skills. Very little energy is put into making a better match between the coping behaviors of the retarded child and the wider range of tasks for daily living.

It is important to remember that the dependent variables are both coping behaviors and the quality of the impinging environment. Either or both may be affected. For example, in the case of the teen-age parent, the social worker may have helped to change her behavior in all three categories and increased resources. The social worker may have made information about expectations, laws, and policies more available and changed some of the expectations emanating from the impinging environment such as the demand to keep or give up her baby. For the retarded child the social worker may have developed resources for increasing his affiliating behavior and perhaps there are measure of change in these behaviors. The parents may have changed their expectations so that they do not make impossible demands on the child.

It is helpful to use this framework to anticipate and plan for changes as a result of PL 94-142. The purpose of this law is to enable every child to be educated in the least restrictive environment. The result is that more handicapped children will be entering the public schools. Implications for school administrators may mean altering the educational facility. Ramps, elevators and other special equipment may become necessary. The children may not have coping skills for dealing with the larger school environment if their educational experience has been in a special classroom. These children and their teachers will now have to cope with movement from class to class,

larger numbers of people and a more complex physical layout. In the secondary setting children will be enrolled in physical education and will be able to participate in the regular class activities, however, they will be completely unprepared for the locker room requirements of dressing and showering.

Social workers will need to help teachers and administrators plan for alterations to accomodate these children and programming for their socialization. An example which could be utilized is to pair the handicapped child with a child from the regular classroom. Pairing to aid this transition can alter the quality of the strange environment for the handicapped child.

The point of the above examples is to show that this framework makes it possible to particularize, generalize and measure change in practice situations. It is possible to make each of these examples more discrete depending on the conditions of the practice situation. To bring about these changes a worker may, for instance, use knowledge of organizations, skills for working with groups, skills for data collecting and skills for communicating. The worker must also conceptualize the boundaries of the transaction system, determine the major critical exchanges in the transaction system, etc.

The transaction field is exchange in the context of action or activity between the person and the environment. The transaction system may be made up of many exchanges and it is necessary for the worker to determine in which of these exchanges and in what part of this exchange he will intervene.

The criteria for this social work model is that it should be multi-causal. This broad view enables social workers to look at many variables at once to focus on the interrelationships rather than a single cause and effect view.

It may be useful to compare this social work framework to that which is applied in clinical psychology. The psychologist's framework for knowledge building is:

Stimulus-------→-Organism-------→-Response

This is a linear framework, as contrasted to the multicausal social work framework. In psychology, a discipline that has done a much better job of knowledge building than social work, different practicioners emphasize one part of this frame more than others. Among contemporary psychologists, Perls has emphasized the stimulus, Ellis the organism (the cognitive processes) and, of course, Skinner the response. This may be compared to social work in which caseworkers have emphasized coping behaviors while social planners have placed greater emphasis on the quality of the impinging environment. However, Gordon's framework is built in such a way that one has to ask: Coping with what? Impinging on what?

The framework which has been developed places the area of central concern for social work at the interface between the person and environment - the transaction intersystem. To view the transaction intersystem, general systems concepts may be used. Utilizing the general systems concept, the person side of the framework has been presented with the construct coping behavior in conjunction with the

environmental side with the construct quality of the impinging environment thus allowing categories which are useful in establishing outcome goals in practice to be conceptualized for each side. These two sides are the dependent variables for social work. The independent variable is in the transaction intersystem. Social workers intervene in some parts of the transaction field with many different techniques and strategies, depending on the particular content of the many exchanges in the transaction intersystem. The boundary of the transaction field is conceptualized by the workers according to the exchange of energy between major variables in each practice situation. This broader view of practice brings with it an exciting challenge to develop a broader range of skills for intervening in practice situations.

FOOTNOTES

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3. Gordon, "Basic Constructs for an Integrative and Generative Conception of Social Work," pp. 5-11.
4. Costin, Lela B. "School Social Work Practice: A New Model," SOCIAL WORK, March 1975, p. 136.
5. Gordon, "Basic Constructs for an Integrative and Generative Conception of Social Work," pp. 5-11

6. Ibid, p. 9
7. Pincus and Minahan, SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE, pp. 4-5.
8. Max Siporin, INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE, New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1975, pp. 105-106.
9. Bartlett, "Seeking Strengths," p. 96.

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THRESHINGS

This section is devoted to authors' opinions and suggestions on the practice of school social work.

KNOWLEDGEABLE ABOUT CHILD ABUSE?

Helen Donovan

Annually, there are one million chidren abused in the United States. School may be a chance, sometimes their only chance to be helped. The school social worker can be an abused child's salvation, a friend to his family, a leader to inform teachers and administrators in the school sytem about child abuse, and a catalyst to establish school policy for suspected child abuse. Knowledge about child abuse and neglect can be extended. The school social worker can have at his fingertips, the community resources necessary to help a child and his family. He can encourage parental education courses to be taught in coeducational classes as early as the first grade. In a caring way the social worker can effect changes for an individual student, his family, the school and the community.

Child abuse must be defined if others are to have an awareness of the problem.

Child abuse includes nonaccidental physical injury: severe beatings, burns, human bites, or immersion in scalding water; sexual molestation: exploitation of a child for the sexual gratification of an adult, including rape, incest, fondling of the genitals or exhibitionism; neglect: failure to provide a child with the basic necessities of life - food, clothing, shelter, or medical care and emotional abuse: excessive, aggressive, or unreasonable parental behavior that places excessive demands upon the child to perform above his capabilities. Examples may include constant teasing, belittling, or verbal attacks and lack of love, support and guidance. Child abuse is not usually a single physical attack or a single act of deprivation. It is usually a pattern or behavior with the abused and abuser whose continuation causes more and more serious injuries to the child.

A child abuser is usually an ordinary person caught in a life situation beyond his control, a person who can not deal with his personal problems effectively. The abuser frequently feels isolated and unable to reach out to ask for help. Abusers cross all boundaries of economic station, race, ethnic heritage, and religious faith. It is a myth that child abuse is the domain of the poor.

Only a small percentage of chid abusers are unreachable. Through treatment, at least 80 percent can learn how to control and cope with their problems.

Why child abuse occurs is a complex issue and it usually includes a number of separate but related factors. Child abuse is most likely occur when:

1. an adult has the potential to abuse. An adult must first be capable of abuse, and this frequently stems from his having been abused by his parents, being isolated from friends, not liking himself, being unable to meet his own emotional needs, and having no one to give him emotional support. The potential abuser also tends to view children with unrealistic expectations.
2. a parent views a child as "special" or different. The parent may perceive the child as being different or as having special needs that set the child apart from other children. What's important is not that a child is or isn't different, but that the parent "sees" the child in that way.
3. there is a crisis or series of crises. The crisis doesn't have to be major. It could be an argument or a car that won't start - almost anything can trigger an abusive incident.

A combination of these factors, plus the fact that the child is nearby and usually unable to protect himself, can result in abuse. One fact is clear: children seldom trigger the abuse. They are the victims of problems that are not necessarily related to them at all.

Because child abuse is governed by state law, the legal definition of child abuse varies from state to state. Every state, however, has a law that requires certain persons or groups of persons to report suspected cases of child abuse. Failure to report can result in legal action. Every state has at least one statewide agency to receive and investigate suspected cases of child abuse. In Illinois that agency is the Department of Children and Family Services (DCFS). Requiring the reporting of suspected cases of child abuse identifies the child in peril making possible protective services to determine if the child has been abused or is in danger of being abused and to develop a "treatment plan" of needed services. In the majority of cases the treatment plan is determined and implemented on a voluntary basis by the family and the state agency.

If, however, the child's injuries are severe, if there is a history of past abuse, or if the parents are uncooperative, the child abuse case may be referred to the juvenile court, the court's purpose being to protect the child. The child may be removed from the home by court order if the child's life or health is in immediate danger.

School social workers are in a primary position to identify child abuse, to educate school personnel and the community to their responsibility to abused children. A copy of the Illinois Child Abuse Act may be obtained from any Department of Children and Family Services regional office. Also, The National Committee for Prevention of Child Abuse (NCPCA) will send information. Write NCPCA, Publishing Dept., Suite 510, 111 E. Wacker Dr., Chicago, IL 60601. NCPCA's publications list includes a description of the booklet THE EDUCATOR AND CHILD ABUSE, and a national newsletter CARING. Other resources which could be utilized include:

The American Human Association (AHA), Children's Division,
P.O. Box 1266,
Denver, CO 80201, 303/779-1400.

Child Welare League of America (CWLA), Informational Services
67 Irving Place
New York, NY 1003, 212/254-7410

Center for the Prevention and Treatment of Child Abuse and Neglect
Department of Pediatrics, University of Colorado Medical Center
1205 Oneida St.
Denver, CO 80220, 303/321-3963

Parents Anonymous (PA)
2810 Artesia Blvd.
Redondo Beach, CA 90278.
Call toll free: in California 800/352-0386; outside California 800/421-0353.

Project PROTECTION, Montgomery County Public Schools
850 N. Washington St.
Rockville, MD 20850, 301/424-2848

Books and Films

CHILD ABUSE AND NEGLECT: THE FAMILY AND THE COMMUNITY, edited by Ray E. Helfer and C. Henry Kempe. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger Publishing Co., 1976.

MOTHER'S DAY IS OVER by Shirley L. Radl. Anderson, IN: Warner Books, 1974.

SOMEWHERE A CHILD IS CRYING by Vincent J. Fontana. New York: New American Library, 1976. (Reviewed in this issue.)

BROKEN EGGS (classroom stress) color/10 min./$121/Rental $10. Produced by Education Development Center, 1974.

Part of an educational program, the film depicts an incident at a preschool in which children ignore the authority of a student teacher who has brought eggs to show the children. The film provides an opportunity to discuss how to handle a stressful situation. Contact: Education Development Center, Distribution Center, 39 Chapel St., Newton, MA 02160, 617/969-7100.

CIPHER IN THE SNOW (emotional abuse), color/24 min./$265/Rental $14, Produced by Brigham Young University, 1973. Contact: Brigham Young University, Media Marketing W-STAD, Provo, UT 84602, 801/374-1211 X4071. (Reviewed in this issue.)

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HELPING ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN: AN IDEA EXCHANGE

Charles Conklin

A few weeks ago, during our regular "go around" on what is happening in each of our schools the school social workers decided to exchange ideas concerning helpful techniques and methods. I was asked to start the exchange by sharing some of the methods I have used. My emphasis has been to develop a plan to help the greatest number of children in the shortest time, utilizing a variety of approaches.

Initially two basic rules are followed: The child is informed during the first session of what school social workers do and confidentiality is explained to him. If the child is known from previous contacts, and is mature enough, work with his problem is begun during the first visit. If the child is not known, I often simply get acquainted with him and start the problem solving during the second session. Also, it is explained to the student that I plan to see him no more than six times. Certainly, there are times that this is extended, but I tend to feel that if the problem isn't resolved in six office visits that outside help might be needed.

Developing a plan to give the child direction while he is working on his presenting problem is a necessity. One approach I use with many children who just aren't getting along with their teachers is the SWAN plan: stay in your Seat, do your Work, when the teacher is talking pay Attention and don't make any unnecessary Noise. I used to call it the SWAT ("T" for talking) plan, but soon learned there are many ways to make noise in the classroom besides talking. Recently a little fourth grade girl, as I was writing the SWAN plan on the board for her, said "My brother has that on the wall of his room in red letters on a big piece of paper." He is now in eighth grade.

While utilizing a modified behavior modification plan, rewards that have proved quite effective with smaller children include bringing a friend to play a game, stars on a chart and a one minute office visit at dismissal time. A kindergarten teacher recently referred a little boy who was "hitting at least five times a day." I pointed out the advantages of not hitting and on his way home he now brings a note from his teacher each day saying that he had a good day and deserves

a star. He hasn't hit one time since our talk and comes in with a big smile every afternoon. I keep a small box of ten cent items - plastic toys, balls, badges, etc. Little ones sometimes get "the choice of anything in the box" if they can carry out their plan or contract for the week. Last year, a little first grader was chewing his pencil and swallowing the wood to such an extent that the teacher became quite worried and referred him. There was a badge in the "10c" box and his name was Wyatt, the same as the first name of the great western marshall, Wyatt Earp. Wyatt, to earn a badge and become a marshall, stopped pencil chewing immediately. He wore his badge every day until it broke and he came back for a replacement.

Constant support, a little each school day, is sometimes what a child needs to change from a very negative child to a very positive child. One third grade boy comes to my office each day as soon as he gets to school and stays there until the bell rings. He used to get off to a bad start with classmates every morning in the unstructured waiting line and it carried over to a poor attitude in the classroom. As of this writing he has had thirteen straight days with stars on his chart. Each year there has been at least one child who needed this type of steady support.

An approach used with sixth graders is the empty cumulative folder. I keep one tacked to the frame of my blackboard - the sixth grade "remarks" square is outlined in red. Often a child who is acting out can be helped back on the track by explaining that his junior high teachers will probably see his cumulative folder before they see him. His reputation will precede him to junior high school via the folder. What he does from this point to the end of the year will have great impact on the entry the teacher places in his folder.

Competition can be an effective motivator. Near the end of the last school year, the sixth grade teachers in the consolidated sixth grade gave me a list of eight boys who had completed a maximum of only two assignments over a period of several weeks. I met with the group once a week for the remaining few weeks. The first week we discussed why we attend school, how one should try to work up to his potential and how to utilize the time for what it is intended. A plan of action was developed capitalizing on positive entries in cumulative folders and utilizing a chart on the number of math and reading assignments completed by each boy during the week. The friendly competition became quite intense and all improved their output dramatically.

An effective way to deal with a trouble maker in the classroom is to give him responsibility. A group of boys were giving their teachers a great deal of trouble and rarely making the good citizens list (GCL). They were referred. I started a group and a plan was developed. Each day they made the good citizen's list, they could come to my office for good citizen's time and pick films from the catalog, make out the IBM cards for the weekly CUES film order, preview the films upon delivery and choose the films to be seen during inclement weather when we couldn't go out on the playground. Their work and attitude improved. They became regular GCL members and the quality of the

films shown improved! The boys received a special award at the graduation exercises for their outstanding "film" work.

Sometimes children who had responded well reverted to their presenting problems whenever their cases were closed. Now, to insure continued success, I have developed the "open-door" plan. Children on "open-door" come to my office for thirty minutes reward time every Friday morning for the remainder of the school year. As the school year progresses I find "wall to wall" children every Friday morning, not only in my office, but in the hall and the office across the hall. To come to open-door, the child needs a note from his teacher saying he has had a good week.

Although I use several ideas over and over, as the SWAN plan, cumulative folder entry, rewards of stars, badges, open-door, job assignments or playing games, there seems to be no limit to the ideas which can be used. Looking for better ways to help and remaining flexible are key factors in problem solving with the spontaneous, energetic and imaginative elementary school child.

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SAIL: INTERVENTION WITH EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED DROP OUT PRONE YOUTH

Linda Hall Harris
and John L. Thompson

Recently implemented federal legislation regarding the civil rights of handicapped individuals requires public schools to provide "full and appropriate" educational services for all handicapped youth between the ages of 3-21 in programs that are minimally restrictive and are not separate from the total mainstream school program. This article will describe an innovative service model for effective intervention with fully mainstreamed emotionally disturbed drop-out prone adolescents in a middle class suburban high school utilizing a systems approach.

S.A.I.L. (Student Advocates Inspire Learning), an ESEA Title IV-C Special Education project, was developed in early 1976 by a community and school task force and implemented in the fall with a full time staff of two social workers, two special education teachers with special training in the area of emotional disturbance, one special education tutor, a project coordinator and a secretary/receptionist. The program services up to eighty high school students annually. Three types of students qualify for participation: 1) students who have previously dropped out and wish to return to school, 2) students seriously contemplating dropping out, and 3) "in-school dropouts" (those students with chronic attendance problems who fail to earn a minimum number of academic credits in a semester). Data from the first two years of program operation show that these students also experience problems in one or more of the following areas: legal infractions, chemical and alcohol abuse, sexual abuse, serious family difficulties, authority conflicts, dysfunctional peer relationships or psychological problems. Contrary to the staff's prior expectations, under carefully controlled testing conditions, it was ascertained that learning disabilities did not seem to a major contributory factor.

All students in SAIL participate in the regular high school curriculum and are heterogenously grouped in academic classes. Each student is assigned a SAIL staff "case manager" who is the primary contact person for that student as well as the student's teachers, family and community agencies with which the student is involved. As participants in the SAIL project, students are involved in

intensive group counseling sessions co-led by SAIL staff. Groups are composed of 7 - 10 students and meet three days a week for 1½ hours per day. In these groups, students experience various activities designed to build group cohesiveness, facilitate personal sharing, explore individual strengths, teach strategies for creative problem solving, confront irresponsible behavior and facilitate appropriate playfulness. In addition to group participation, each student meets with his case manager for an individual counseling session each week.

The core methodology of Project SAIL is Goal Attainment Scaling[1] which is a goal setting process that encourages individuals to set concrete, measurable goals which are realistically attainable. Staff assists students to select 6 - 15 individualized goals with at least one goal related to attendance and academic achievement in each class. Additional goals mutually negotiated by the student and staff relate to problem areas such as aggression, dependency, chemical abuse, hostility, passivity, suicide, responsibility, sexuality, peer relationships, authority conflicts, delinquency, etc. Students are also expected to select at least one goal focused on maintenance of a currently successful area of functioning or personal strength.

Students score these goals each Friday in group and discussion focuses on mutual recognition for goal attainment. This provides a vehicle for immediate and continuous feedback for the student regarding ongoing progress. At the end of each nine week quarter, an overall goal attainment score is calculated for each student. Students can receive elective credit for participation in SAIL; however this credit is contingent upon successful attainment of at least half of the goals.

In essence Goal Attainment Scaling offers an explicit, respectful treatment contract through which the adolescent learns to set realistic explicit expectations, monitor progress, and achieve positive recognition for improvement. In the SAIL project, progress toward these goals is the major thrust of both group and individual counseling sessions, thus focusing student and staff discussion to the essential issues mutually agreed upon by both in the initial treatment contact.

SAIL staff believes that effective intervention with emotionally handicapped youth requires a total systems approach. A common lament of parents during intake is the lack of regular, consistent communication with school officials regarding their child's school performance. Parents of SAIL students are contacted bi-weekly with factual information regarding the student's functioning, his positive accomplishments made during the week, and his progress on goals. SAIL staff supports parents to develop realistic specific expectations, with clear consequences and encourages parents to help students celebrate even small successes regarding student progress on goals. The student's case manager coordinates the plan for service, offers on-going counseling to parents and where appropriate facilitates the referral process to the appropriate community resources such as chemical/alcoholism treatment programs, court services, state

employment services, medical clinics and counseling agencies. However, most parents of students prefer an informal relationship with SAIL staff focusing mainly on student progress and child management techniques rather than family counseling.

Classroom teachers constitute an integral component of the child's system. The SAIL staff works together with mainstream faculty and administrative personnel regarding needs of students and progress towards goals.

Collaborative work sometimes involves assisting teachers to negotiate individual performance contracts with students, accurately assessing student's academic potential, providing tutorial services or facilitating communication between parents and teachers. This collaboration has been instrumental in building a consistent and operationally effective I.E.P. (Individual Educational Plan) for each student. Accurate records are kept of weekly contacts with each student's teachers including specific data regarding class attendance and academic progress. This data is used to verify student's self reports on their goals each week.

SAIL is designed to impact the total sytem in which the student interacts, including the family, teachers, peers and community agencies. It represents an approach that encompasses the various special education and social work methodologies on both the small and large systems level and has proven to be a successful method of intervention with this high risk population. Most importantly, it has shown that emotionally troubled, dropout prone youth can experience success in the regular academic setting without being segregated into a self contained, mini-school environment.

The techniques and processes utilized in the SAIL model could be successfully replicated on a much smaller scale providing effective services to as few as 10 students depending on the school district's priorities and fiscal resources. The approach presented by the SAIL project has relevance to any school sytem interested in setting up a creative mainstream program for drop-out prone adolescents.

FOOTNOTES

1. Kiresuk, Thomas J. and Robert E. Sherman, "Goal Attainment Scaling: A General Method of Evaluating Comprehensive Community Mental Health Programs," COMMUNITY MENTAL HEALTH JOURNAL, IV (6, 1968), 443-454.

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as a group therapist and coordinator of staff development and as the chemical dependency chairperson for Lindbergh High School, Minnetonka, Minnesota. Mr. Thompson also works with the St. Mary's Outpatient program in Minneapolis.

LINDA HARRIS has an MSW and an MA in educational psychology. She is the group therapist for Project SAIL, the program evaluator and the district social work department chairperson. Prior to that Ms. Harris worked as a social work consultant for the Hopkins, Minnesota Public Schools and as a special education teacher at St. Joseph's Home for Children, a day treatment psychiatric facility.

STEP: SYSTEMATIC TRAINING FOR EFFECTIVE PARENTING

Prudence Harker

STEP: Systematic Training for Effective Parenting[1] is a multi-media parent training program. It may be what social workers have been looking for to expand their professional practice if parents have asked for their help in understanding and managing their child.

As a parent training package, group facilitators have found STEP to be comprehensive, well planned, short term, inexpensive and effective. The program components also can be used in toto or individually as topics for parent-teacher programs, classroom curriculum, or staff development.

In a STEP study group participants are taught that children misbehave for a reason; that parents influence rather than control their children; that there is no such thing as the "perfect" parent, the "right" way, or the "bad" child; that children encouraged to make choices and experience the consequences of their decisions will be less vulnerable to stress and better able to cope later in life.

STEP kit materials contain a STEP Leader's Manual,[2] a STEP Parent's Handbook,[3] five cassettes, ten large charts, a spiral book of colorful posters, discussion guide cards and fifty invitational brochures. The leader's manual describes in full the tasks necessary to implement the program and includes detailed weekly lesson plans and tapescripts for each of the nine sessions. The parent's handbook is a colorfully illustrated book of readings explaining the principles of democratic parent-child relationships. The readings are supplemented by charts, lists of points to remember, problem situations and weekly personal progress forms.

A STEP parent study group typically meets for two hours for a period of nine weeks. The informal but structured class begins with a discussion, usually lively, of the past week's behavioral homework assignment. Following that, participants discuss the weekly reading assignment. The leader supplements this learning experience with the charts, posters, and cassette tapes supplies in the kit. Typical family situations reflecting key points in the week's reading are recorded on the tapes. After listening to the tapes, parents are asked to identify and apply basic concepts. This activity reinforces learning

and provides members an opportnity to practice STEP skills before applying them at home as directed in the weekly behavioral assignment.

If time remains, a typical but unsolved family conflict is presented to the group for resolution, requiring the application of all skills learned to date. The final activity each week is a summary or "wrap-up" in which each member summarizes what he has learned during the meeting that is especially meaningful.

The STEP curriculum is extensive, Parents are taught: 1) a theory of human behavior. Human behavior is motivated by a desire to achieve a sense of belonging and children often misbehave (seek attention, power, revenge, and inadequacy) in order to fulfill that goal. 2) How to establish more effective relationships. A democratic relationship is based upon the dignity and worth of both parent and child. Parents, freed of authoritarian attitudes trust their children and provide them appropriate opportunities to solve problems, make decisions, and act independently. 3) The use of encouragement. Unlike praise, which is given for excellence and accomplishment, encouragement focuses on positive efforts and improvement. Under this sytem of reinforcement all children deserve and earn recognition. 4) Communication skills. Parents learn about and practice reflective listening, open responses, exploring alternatives through brainstorming, problem ownership, problem solving and I-messages. 5) How to develop responsibility. Reward and punishment as arbitrary disciplinary techniques are replaced by the implementation of natural and logical consequences. Because logical consequences are logically related to behavior, especially misbehavior, children learn the principle of cause and effect. Since they make the choice, they also learn to accept responsibility for the consequences they "suffer" and "enjoy". 6) How to conduct a family meeting. Family meetings, in which all members of the family participate in the democratic process, foster cooperation, mutual respect and committment, even for the young child.

This cominbation of knowledge and skills form a gestalt of experience and understanding that is vitalizing and self-actualizing for all who participate. Mothers and fathers who have completed the STEP program have much to say about the benefits of their experience. Here are several statements made by STEP program "graduates."

> "I can handle things. I know what to do. I can act. I don't have to react."
> "My family respects me."
> "I wish I'd been brought up this way. I have made many mistakes because my parents did everything for me. I didn't learn how to solve problems and make decisions on my own."
> "I've learned to accept my (learning disabled) child, I feel good about encouraging him."
> "Our life was a nightmare of screaming, yelling and cruel physical punishment. Now I have an alternative and I also

have made some friends who accept me as I am and will help me if I call."

"My son's teachers are astonished. He has changed dramatically. I know it is because I am treating him differently."

School social workers who have used STEP within the school setting have data to support the belief that a child respected, accepted and encouraged at home is more receptive to the learning experience than the child who is not. For this, STEP is a valuable and viable addition to the school social worker's method and practice.

FOOTNOTES

1. Don Dinkmeyer and Gary D. McKay, SYSTEMATIC TRAINING FOR EFFECTIVE PARENTING (STEP), Circle Pines, Minn.: American Guidance Service, Inc., 1976

2. Don Dinkmeyer and Gary D. McKay, STEP LEADER'S MANUAL, Circle Pines, Minn.: American Guidance Service, Inc., 1976

3. Don Dinkmeyer and Gary D. McKay, STEP PARENT'S HANDBOOK, Circle Pines, Minn.: American Guidance Service, Inc., 1976

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BOOK REVIEWS

SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK AND PL 94-142: THE EDUCATION ALL HANDICAPPED CHILDREN ACT, edited by Richard J. Anderson, Molly Freeman, Richard L. Edwards, National Association of Social Workers, Washington D.C. 1977.

SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK AND PL 94-142: THE EDUCATION FOR ALL HANDICAPPED CHILDREN ACT is the seventh installment in a growing series of monographs entitled CONTINUING EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK PROFESSIONALS. The publication was generated from a workshop co-sponsored by the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) and by the University of Georgia School of Social Work in Athens, Georgia in July of 1977. This workshop brought together school social work leaders from throughout the country and representatives from the University of Georgia School of Social Work to focus on the content of PL 94-142 and the commitment of school social work to its implementation. The eight articles in just under one hundred pages very adequately address a wide spectrum of research and practice pertaining to PL 94-142.

The provisions of the Act itself are succinctly outlined in an introduction to the monograph by Molly Freeman. Freeman is the School Social Work Coordinator in the Washington, D.C. office of NASW and in the capacity provided vital information to the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare staff who developed the final PL 94-142 Federal regulations. The introduction outlines the level of federal contribution toward a handicapped child's education that states and local school districts can realize.

Richard Weatherly, an Associate Professor in the University of Washington School of Social Work, relates a number of dangers inherent in implementing any new legislation and describes the school social worker's role in this process. His article, "PL 94-142: Social Work's Role in Local Implementation," portrays the enacting of the statute as the initial hurdle but points out that school social workers need a basic foundation in organizational dynamics and political systems to overcome additional roadblocks to program implementation.

Anne Mitchell, a school social worker in Jefferson County, Colorado, contributes, "The Handicapped Child in the Least Restrictive

Environment - Developing Positive Interaction Between the Handicapped and the Non-Handicapped." She states that the practice of educating all children in the least restrictive environment regardless of their handicapping condition will succeed only when the school district faculty supports the philosophy. A variety of methods is described by which a school social worker can creatively support the student, staff and family to bring about the student's successful assimilation into a less restrictive educational setting.

The school social worker's role as a member of a multidisciplinary student support team is discussed by Eleanor Felker, a Social Work Training Program Coordinator with the Minneapolis Public School System. "System Involvement In Creating a Better Environment for Handicapped Children: Parental Involvement and the Interdisciplinary Team" details the significant ingredients of a team, the potential reservations of faculty members to implement a team approach, the factors necessary to quality inservice training and the resulting role of the school social worker as a change agent in the local educational system.

Barbara Morse, a school social worker in Fairfax County, Virginia worked with four fellow professionals to develop "The Role of a Social History in Special Education Evaluation." The authors describe the legal mandates prompting the development of the social history in Virginia, the rationale for conducting a social history and various elements of their social history document. They further explain how to obtain maximum utility from a social history as opposed to simply including it as another installment in a child's records.

"Mediation: A Unique Due Process Procedure Which Utilizes Social Work Skills" was contributed by Claire Gallant, a consultant in the School Social Work Services and Mediations section in the Connecticut Department of Education. Social work skills that may be utilized for mediation when resolving disputes betwen parents and school systems regarding a child's educational program are discussed. Connecticut is the only state to mandate mediation as an integral part of due process. Gallant describes that procedure as being solution oriented with flexibility and informality as the key. Also included in the article are the Connecticut State Department of Education Mediation Procedures and a sample mediated contract.

The "Public Schools and Delivery of Social Service or How to Use the Number Game" was written by Wallace Lornell, an Associate with the Bureau of School Psychological and Social Services in the New York Department of Education. This article describes a host of state and federal legislation and regulations impacting the school aged handicapped child. The urgent need for school social workers to develop knowledge of these laws in relation to the needs of their clientel is stressed.

Dr. Paula Meares is a practicing school social worker in the Urbana, Illinois public school system. Her article entitled "Integrating Systems Approaches in Working with Handicapped Children and Their Families" uses an historical approach to outline school social work theory and practice. Meares describes numerous practice

models to be used concurrently and states that a school social work practitioner can no longer successfully serve the complex organization of an educational system by utilizing only one approach. A school social worker must be simultaneously involved in treatment, leadership and planning to educate the handicapped child in the least restrictive setting.

Dr. Richard Anderson, an Associate Professor of Social Work at the University of Georgia concludes this many faceted subject by summarizing the implications generated from the papers in the monograph. "Implications for the Practice of School Social Work and the Education for All Handicapped Children Act: Suggestions from the Conference" includes a discussion of the ideas presented in the summer workshop and emphasizes two points. First, school social work and education in general are increasingly regulated at the state and federal level and secondly, school social workers must have intimate knowledge of these statutes and regulations in order to effectively practice in the modern educational setting. The closing discussion brings together the separate but related aspects of PL 94-142 and highlights points that are well worth reiterating.

School Social Work and PL 94-142 is available for purchase at $2.50 per copy. Write: NASW Publication Sales, 1425 H. St. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005.

VAUGHN W. MORRISON is the School Social Work Consultant for the Illinois Office of Education. He has worked as a school social worker in elementary, junior and senior high school, taught language arts in junior high and English in senior high.

SOMEWHERE A CHILD IS CRYING: MALTREATMENT--CAUSES AND PREVENTION Fontana, Vincent J., M.D. A Mentor Book, New American Library, New York, 1976. (Paperback edition, 256 pp.; $1.95) Original publication in hardcover by Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., New York, 1973.

SOMEWHERE A CHILD IS CRYING, the author's second book on this topic, is an informative addition to the increasing volume of literature concerning child abuse. Dr. Vincent Fontana, a physician, pediatrician, and humanitarian, speaks from his years of experience as director of New York's historical Foundling Hospital. He discusses most aspects of the "maltreatment syndrome" and shares his insight into perhaps the worst social problem facing us today.

Fontana defines maltreatment as:

> ...any treatment by which a child's potential development is retarded or completely suppressed, by mental, emotional or physical suffering . . . whether it is negative (as in deprivation of emotional or material needs) or positive (as in verbal abuse or battering). (p. 23)

Working from this comprehensive definition the author then describes many case histories from which he makes analyses and generalizations.

Fontana does a commendable job of analyzing and synthesizing the social factors surrounding child maltreatment. For instance, he mentions the direct relationship between sophisticated, technologically advanced societies and the incidence of child abuse. He discusses our cultural belief that physical force is legitimate - in fact, encouraged - in child rearing. The idea that the child is the property of his parents and is treated, or mistreated, at their discretion is addressed. In addition, he asserts that maltreatment occurs in families of all socioeconomic levels and explains why statistics might lead us to believe the "syndrome" was more evident in poverty-stricken, multi-problem families.

Fontana discusses and justifies the urgency of detection and treatment. He suggests that children must be identified and protected by age two at the latest; older children are beyond salvage, in his estimation. While he concedes that the lives of children three and older can be saved, he believes their future has already been "imprinted and inflicted upon them" by that time. The idea that maltreated children become maltreating parents is extended to suggest that these same children will emerge as tomorrow's hard-core criminals. The author considers the social implications for our nation, where child abuse figures continue to increase at a frightening rate.

Fontana believes that a child's development is mainly dependent on the attitudes of parents toward him and the behavior resulting from these attitudes. He has isolated and categorized factors contributing to parents' inability to care for children; however, the reader is cautioned about trying to describe the "typical" abusing parent, since he is not one type of person but many. Nevertheless, the author discusses six kinds of parents who are likely to abuse their children: emotionally immature, neurotic or psychotic, mentally deficient or uninformed, harsh disciplinarians, criminal/sadistic, and addicts, either drug or alcohol. He recognizes that these categories are neither mutually exclusive nor absolute; however, they may alert the reader to parental traits to look for in assessing the vulnerability of child-clients.

Of necessity, any work dealing with child maltreatment includes a discussion of child welfare agencies, their strength and weaknesses. The author draws from his experience on the Mayor's Task Force and various advisory/consultant positions to make suggestions and recommendations to improve both the legal and social services systems. In addition, Fontana surveys and critiques some of the prevention and treatment programs now in operation in our country.

Several unique features of this book make it especially useful to social workers. For instance, a ten-page epilogue written by Douglas J. Besharov is included. Besharov, Asst. Professor of Law at the New York University and Director of the National Center of Child Abuse, makes several recommendations concerning future policy-making regarding child maltreatment; he concludes that, in dollars-and-cents, it is far less costly to protect and rehabilitate a child than it is to pay the social costs of his deviant behavior. Other features of the book include a directory of fifteen child abuse programs in this country and an extensive bibliography listing related books, documents, and articles from legal, social welfare, and medical sources.

Despite the fact that some case histories in the book are tedious and the author's style is redundant in places, SOMEWHERE A CHILD IS CRYING is worthwhile reading for social workers who want to gain insight into a social problem which may contribute to the most baffling client in his caseload - the child who is literally "crying" for someone to help.

D. RUTH ESRY is a school social worker in the Rural Champaign County Cooperative Early Childhood Program. The program is a cooperative between fifteen rural Champaign county school districts and the University of Illinois Institute for Child Behavior and Development. Ms. Esry has also been a foster parent for a group home in Indiana and as caseworker for the Illinois Department of Public Aid in Lincoln, Illinois.

HUMAN CHARACTERISTICS & SCHOOL LEARNING,
Benjamin Bloom, New York: McGraw Hill Co., 1976

Frequently, professionals such as school social workers, due to lack of time, limit their reading to those books and articles which are directly related to their practice. Also, like a number of other professions, social work, has been very involved in the process of knowledge building and articulating its own identity. There are times, however, when we must look beyond our own literature and investigate other related areas which offer a new perspective. HUMAN CHARACTERISTICS AND SCHOOL LEARNING offers social workers who practice in the public schools such an opportunity.

The author, a distinguished professor and educator, puts important characteristics of the learning process into a meaningful perspective and most importantly addresses the issue of "historical determinism," and suggests that it is an alterable component of the learning process. This holds significant implications for children who come to school lacking the necessary cognitive and affective entry characteristics required for mastery learning.

There are two underlying assumptions presented in the text. The first concept stresses that history of the learner is at the core of school learning. Each learner begins a particular course, class etc., or school program with a history which has prepared him differently from other learners. The main issue then is how these histories (home environment, early childhood experiences etc.) can be understood and how the school responds to them - which may increase and/or reduce individual learning. The second assumption is that prerequisite learning and motivation of each learner can be modified as well as the quality of instruction. It is assumed that both entry characteristics and the quality of instruction determine the outcome of the learning process and can reduce variation among students and increase their effectiveness in learning, thus offering each student equality in terms of learning outcomes.

This theory places the responsibility of identifying the missing entry characteristics, cognitive and affective, on the teacher, tutor, etc. It also requires that the teacher be creative and masterful in altering the learning task in such a way that it alters the required entry behaviors

Also, during the process of teacher-student interaction, the learner is provided with a system of feedback and correctives so that the errors in the learning process are not compounded.

Social workers in the public schools play a significant role in explaining and understanding the history of children and how it can hinder the learning process. Dr. Bloom reaffirms the committment of the public school to develop the talent of all pupils regardless of their "history" and he strongly suggests that all children have talent which can be developed under specific conditions.

This book is definitely a thought provoking text with a number of micro and macro studies which support the basic assumptions presented by the author.

PAULA G. MEARES is a school social worker at Urbana Senior High School and the department chairman of Special Services. Dr. Meares is also a visiting lecturer at the School of Social Work, University of Illinois, Champaign-Urbana. The author participated on a panel discussion reacting to Dr. Bloom's book at the National Symposium on Teaching and Learning, Chicago, 1977.

LIFE-SKILLS FOR HEALTH: FOCUS ON MENTAL HEALTH, North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh, North Carolina, 1977.

Patricia Lee

LIFE SKILLS FOR HEALTH: FOCUS ON MENTAL HEALTH is a valuable handbook for school social workers and other ancillary school personnel. For health education teacher it is a curriculum resource. For older students working with younger students it is a peer counseling training program, and for any educator interested in instilling skills in communication and interpersonal relationships, it is a compendium of ideas for mini-courses. Versatile as it is in its content usage, it is organized into four publications tailored to particular grade levels. (K-3, 4-6, 7-9, 10-12).

Generally comprised of group activities, it strives first to develop within its participants the ability to ascertain one's own values, and goals, and correlate these to specific situations, issues, and problems. (Values clarification.) Secondly, it teaches skills in assessing alternatives to problem situations, selecting and acting on the chosen option, and evaluating the result. (Decision-making). Thirdly, LIFE SKILLS FOR HEALTH: FOCUS ON MENTAL HEALTH fosters constructive alternative methods for recognizing and fulfilling human needs. (Self actualization). In doing so, students make gains in understanding their own strengths and limitations, are more aware and able to deal constructively with their feelings and emotions, and better able to cope effectively with interpersonal relations. The overall goal is to enable children to learn the skills necessary to cope with everyday problem situations.

To satisfy these objectives, students should be directly involved in the learning process. The facilitator too is expected to take part in the exercises so that he may be perceived as a genuine human being with his own unique set of problems and concerns. Additionally, his active presence is thought to contribute to the trusting atmosphere essential to the success of the program.

Years of research concerning effective group dynamics are integrated into the approaches advocated. Informal seating arrangements are suggested, and social workers will readily

recognize the abundant use of the technique "listening for feelings." Its use is threefold. In establishing a non-judgmental, uncritical environment in the class, students are prompted more readily to discuss real issues, also it keeps the discussions on target, and finally it inspires students to deliberate on and clarify their own thoughts and sentiments.

School social workers may also elect to use the LIFE SKILLS FOR HEALTH: FOCUS ON MENTAL HEALTH series as an initial contact point with the classroom teachers. Supposing a classroom problem arises that concerns self-concept, emotions, or interpersonal relations, the social worker can use the series as a reference tool by collating a structured activity to the problem at hand. Likewise, in more general terms, he may be able to be of assistance to the classroom teacher in dealing with behavioral problems by introducing the educator to the concept and method of "living behavioral feedback." More fully explained in the booklets themselves, this strategy leaves the responsibility with the student for effecting his own behavior change and is based on the principle that all behavior is caused.

Prepared by the Division of Health, Safety, and Physical Education, North Carolina Department of Public Instruction the material is intended to be used twice-weekly for optimum success, allowing approximately one half hour for each exercise. Stimulating participation, discussion, and providing insight and feedback is the major focus on the facilitator. Each concept explored is accompanied by at least one behavior objective and any number of activities designed to meet the objective. Role-playing is quite often employed in this regard.

PATRICIA LEE is a school social worker with the Catawba County School System in North Carolina. Ms. Lee has worked as the parent liason trainer and as the staff development coordinator for the Catawba School System.

BOOK NOTES

Fraiberg, Selma. EVERY CHILD'S BIRTHRIGHT: IN DEFENSE OF MOTHERING. New York: Basic Books, 1977. Selma Fraiberg, author of THE MAGIC YEARS defends the early mother-child relationship and argues against government policy in welfare and daycare regulations.

Grotberg, Edith H. editor. 200 YEARS OF CHILDREN. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Human Development, Office of Child Development, 1977. This book is concerned with the major aspects of child life from 1776-1976 rather than historical events. It focuses on trends in consideration of children's needs in health, education, welfare, recreation, literature and the more recent emphasis on the rights of children.

Kappelman, Murray and Paul R. Ackerman. BETWEEN PARENT AND SCHOOL New York: Dial Press, 1977. A handbook for parents for dealing with the school, this book discusses in separate chapters the school administration, teacher, special education teacher, communication specialist, psychologist, physician, nurse and social worker. It gives strategies for working with and confronting school policies.

Keniston, Kenneth and the Carnegie Council on Children. ALL OUR CHILDREN: THE AMERICAN FAMILY UNDER PRESSURE. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Jovanovich Inc., 1977. This recently released report which was begun in 1972 by the Carnegie Council on Children studies the effects of American society on the family. It probes our basic assumptions about the family and then goes on to show how the family is inseparable from society at large.

Long, Kate. JOHNNY'S SUCH A BRIGHT BOY, WHAT A SHAME HE'S RETARDED. Boston: Houghton-Miflin, 1977. Kate Long provides a timely look at some of the most controversial aspects of the segregation policy in effect with special education students. Using a fictional story to illustrate problems common to public schools, she shows the ramifications of labels and the need for mainstreaming.

McWhister, J. Jeffries. THE LEARNING DISABLED CHILD. Champaign: Research Press, 1977. This book is written for parents, teachers and pupil personnel services staff. Of special interest to school social workers are the methods to increase the child's self-esteem and deal with psychological and emotional problems.

Marion, Robert and Terri McCaslin. FAMILY SUPPORT COUNSELING FOR PARENTS OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN. Texas: National Education Laboratory, 1977. This is an annotated and categorical bibliography of information for working with parents of exceptional children.

Mishara, Brian L. and Robert D. Patterson. CONSUMER'S GUIDE TO MENTAL HEALTH: HOW TO FIND, SELECT, AND USE HELP. New York: Times Books, 1977. A comprehensive handbook which describes the range of help available, costs, what results to expect, qualifications of professionals, how to evaluate services and uses of medication. This new release should be an important reference work.

Silverstein, Dr. Charles. A FAMILY MATTER. New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1977. Dr. Silverstein provides parents with information about their children's sexuality. Using case studies, he speaks simply and directly to help parents understand that homosexuals need to be as close to their families as other children do.

Pearce, Joseph. MAGICAL CHILD. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1977. This book emphasizes the importance of play, not only in the lives of children but also in adult life. Joseph Pearce goes on to discuss the many tragic errors we make in raising our children.

Thompson, Diane G. WRITING LONG-TERM AND SHORT-TERM OBJECTIVES: A PAINLESS APPROACH. Champaign: Research Press, 1977. This self-instructional manual gives a practical approach to help educators write objectives quickly and accurately.

NANCY FEYL CHAVKIN is a school social worker in Champaign, Illinois. Ms. Chavkin has worked with the Delaware State Correctional Facility and with an Applachian Studies Project in Knox County, Kentucky. Ms. Chavkin joins the editorial staff of the SCHOOL SOCIAL WORK JOURNAL as editor of book reviews.

FILM REVIEWS

CHILD ABUSE AND THE LAW, (27 min., color, sound) Produced by The Motion Picture Company, Inc., distributed through Perennial Education, Inc., 477 Roger Williams, P.O. Box 855 - Ravinia, Highland Park, Illinois 60035. $32.50 rental.

8,700 suspected cases of abuse and/or neglect were reported to DCFS in 1977, sixteen times the number recorded in 1965 when the Illinois Child Abuse Statute was enacted. The film adresses the issue of the school age child and how teachers can help the abused and neglected child. It is an instructive film for in-service training on reporting, legal immunity, and teacher response to the child who may be vulnerable to abuse and neglect. Special attention is given to law regarding the reporting of suspected cases of child abuse and neglect by teachers. Brief incidents are enacted to help the audience become more aware of the signs and the symptoms of abuse and neglect. The roles and responsibilities of professionals in the community are discussed and the importance of a positive attitude toward protecting the child with warmth and understanding is stressed.

CIPHER IN THE SNOW, (23 min., color sound) Produced by Brigham Young University and distributed through the Illinois Office of Education Media and Resources Center, 100 North First Street, Springfield, Illinois 62777. Free loan.

School social workers who wish to discuss emotional neglect with parents, teachers, interns or community groups will find this film useful. It is a story about a dejected junior high school boy who dies suddenly. He boards the bus one morning, head down: he gets off the bus and collapses in the snow. It is as though he had lost the will to live. A review of his past indicates that he started life normally, but his parents divorced and he began to give up. Through flashbacks, the disintegration of the individual is depicted and his neglect by the school, the mother, the step-father and others accumulate until gradually the boy feels that he is nothing, a cipher. Because we too often do not attend to emotional abuse and neglect as we do physical abuse and neglect, this film will stimulate discussion and increase awareness in those who deal with children.

A FAMILY TALKS ABUT SEX WITH THEIR CHILDREN, (27 min., color, sound) Produced by Wexler Films, distributed by Perennial Education, Inc. Rental $32.50.

The basic premise of this film is that the most important reason for talking frankly with children about sex in the early years is so that when they reach puberty they are not afraid to ask questions or talk about the many things they must know regarding human sexuality. The situations portrayed in the film range from toddlers to college age students. All are familiar and are presented by many different parents and their children. Topics include pregnancy, puberty, menstruation, nocturnal emission, teenage sexuality, pornography, sexual intercourse, the pill, marriage, etc. It is an amusing film which speaks to the problem of communication about human sexuality in a non-threatening way. It will be useful for in-service with faculties, staff, and parent groups, especially in the elementary grades.

SEPARATION/DIVORCE: IT HAS NOTHING TO DO WITH YOU, (14 min., color, sound) Produced by CRM Educational Films and distributed through McGraw-Hill Films, 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York, N.Y. 10020. Rental $15.00.

If you are thinking about doing a group for students who come from broken families, this may be the film you have been looking for. A teenage boys returns home from visiting over night with a friend to find his mother distraught by the father's announced intent to seek a divorce. Later, in a conversation with his father, he is asked to help the father move. This puts the boy squarely in the middle of a conflict of loyalties: should he help his father or stay with his mother during her time of initial confusion. The conflict leads to another argument between the parents. The film serves as a springboard to discussion and examination of feelings and attitudes about experiences of divorce and the pain and conflict of a broken marriage as it affects the teenage child.

THE WAR OF THE EGGS, (27 min., color sound) Paulist Productions, distributed through Illinois Department of Children and Family Services, Ofice of Community Relations, 623 East Adams, Springfield, Illinois 62701. Free loan.

This is the story of a depressed and angry young woman who engages in bitter quarrels with her husband. During one of these arguments she pushes their two year old son down the stairs. The child is badly injured as a result of her explosion of anger. While the child is being treated, a psychiatrist talks with the parents. Their marital conflicts and personal problems are at first denied, but then give way to their facing their problems and recognizing a need for professional help.

Films reviewed by Ben Wheatley

A new publication from The University of Chicago Press—Journals Division

The Hyperactive Child and Stimulant Drugs

Edited by James J. Bosco and Stanley S. Robin

In recent years, the treatment of hyperkinetic children with stimulant drugs has provoked a body of literature which, though extensive, is primarily limited to either medical analyses or polemical statements. Educators, parents, physicians, and legislators need a far more comprehensive and rational literature to make informed decisions about this treatment and its medical, legal, ethical, and social consequences. *The Hyperactive Child and Stimulant Drugs* fulfills that need.

Contents

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Richard A. Johnson, James B. Kenney, and John B. Davis, Developing School Policy for Use of Stimulant Drugs for Hyperactive Children

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Robert L. Sprague and Kenneth D. Gadow, The Role of the Teacher in Drug Treatment

Stanley S. Robin and James J. Bosco, The Social Context of Stimulant Drug Treatment for Hyperkinetic Children

Leon Eisenberg, Future Threats or Clear and Present Dangers?

James L. McGaugh, Neurobiology and the Future of Education

The Hyperactive Child and Stimulant Drugs first appeared as the November 1976 issue of **School Review,** a leading voice for theory, research, and inquiry in the field of education since 1893. The journal issue is being offered for sale as a single copy or at a special bulk rate. The cloth edition will appear in Spring 1977.

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